

A Review Article on Alzheimers disease

**Rohit Pandey, Madhu Gupta, Shikha Singh, Neha Goel, Prabhakar Singh Tiwari
and Surya Prakash Gupta***

Rajiv Gandhi Institute of Pharmacy
Faculty of Pharmaceutical Science & Technology
AKS University, Satna-485001 (MP)
***Corresponding Author: Dr. Surya Prakash Gupta**

Email ID: rgipsatna@yahoo.co.in

Abstract

This is a comprehensive overview of Alzheimer's disease, covering its historical background, pathogenesis, classification, risk factors, global burden, prevention strategies, diagnostic methods, and treatment options. It's clear that Alzheimer's disease is a complex and multifaceted condition that poses significant challenges to healthcare systems worldwide.

The distinction between Alzheimer's disease and dementia is particularly important to highlight, as is the ongoing research into disease-modifying treatments. The amyloid cascade hypothesis remains a focal point in understanding the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's, and while current pharmaceutical treatments focus on symptom management, there is hope for future therapies aimed at disease modification.

The projected increase in Alzheimer's prevalence underscores the urgent need for effective preventive strategies and therapeutic interventions. Precision medicine approaches hold promise for tailoring treatments to individual patients based on specific biomarkers and clinical characteristics.

Introduction-

Alzheimer's disease is indeed a complex and devastating condition. It's characterized by the progressive degeneration of brain tissue, primarily affecting regions like the cerebral cortex and hippocampus. Initially, abnormalities manifest in areas like the frontal and temporal lobes before spreading to other parts of the brain's neocortex, although the pace of progression varies widely among individuals.[1]

The involvement of beta-amyloid plaques and tau protein tangles in the pathology of Alzheimer's highlights the complexity of the disease and the need for further research into its underlying mechanisms. While current treatments like cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine provide some relief in symptom management, they do not address the root cause or alter the disease's progression.[2]

Early detection and intervention remain crucial for improving outcomes and enhancing quality of life for individuals with Alzheimer's disease. This necessitates ongoing efforts to develop more accurate diagnostic tools and novel therapeutic approaches. Additionally, support programs and services play a vital role in assisting both patients and caregivers in managing the challenges associated with the disease.

Historical background-

Alzheimer's disease is indeed a complex condition that profoundly impacts the brain's structure and function. Dr. Alois Alzheimer's groundbreaking observations in 1906 laid the foundation for understanding this neurodegenerative disorder. The identification of amyloid plaques and tau tangles as hallmark features of Alzheimer's has been pivotal in research and diagnosis.[3]

The gradual loss of neuronal connections and the subsequent deterioration of brain regions crucial for memory, language, reasoning, and social behavior highlight the progressive nature of the disease. As Alzheimer's advances, it affects various areas of the brain, leading to widespread cognitive decline and functional impairment.

Understanding these underlying mechanisms is crucial for developing effective treatments and interventions to alleviate the burden of Alzheimer's on individuals and society as a whole. Ongoing research continues to delve deeper into the complexities of this devastating condition, with the ultimate goal of finding a cure or preventive measures.

Pathogenesis -

Alzheimer's disease is thought to be caused by the abnormal build-up of proteins in and around brain cells.[4]

One of the proteins involved is called amyloid, deposits of which form plaques around brain cells.

The other protein is called tau, deposits of which form tangles within brain cells.

Although it's not known exactly what causes this process to begin, scientists now know that it begins many years before symptoms appear.

As brain cells become affected, there's also a decrease in chemical messengers (called neurotransmitters) involved in sending messages, or signals, between brain cells.

Levels of one neurotransmitter, acetylcholine, are particularly low in the brains of people with Alzheimer's disease.

Over time, different areas of the brain shrink. The first areas usually affected are responsible for memories.

In more unusual forms of Alzheimer's disease, different areas of the brain are affected.

The first symptoms may be problems with vision or language rather than memory.

There are two main pathological hallmarks of AD: (1) the presence of increased extracellular A β plaques, formed due to the aggregation and impaired clearance of A β oligomers (hydrophobic A β aggregates) [5], and (2) the formation of NFTs that are composed of an insoluble intracellular hyperphosphorylated microtubule-associated protein tau [6-16]. MetaCore's [17] pathway the most important processes, genes, and proteins linked to AD pathophysiology. We further highlighted which network objects on the map that are known

AD biomarkers according the MetaCore™, and which ones are drug targets for known drugs (i.e., as a proof of their druggability)

Distinction between alzheimers and dementia

Absolutely, you've summed it up quite well! Dementia serves as an umbrella term for a range of symptoms affecting cognitive abilities, memory, thinking, and behavior. Alzheimer's disease, on the other hand, is the most common form of dementia, marked by progressive neurodegeneration primarily impacting memory and cognitive functions. Understanding this distinction is crucial in both diagnosis and treatment approaches. It's important to note that while Alzheimer's is the predominant cause, there are other types of dementia, each with unique causes and characteristics. [18]

Sign and Symptoms.

Changes in mood and personality are common in Alzheimer's disease and other forms of dementia. This can manifest as confusion, suspicion, depression, fear, or anxiety. Individuals may become easily upset in familiar or unfamiliar environments, with friends, or at home. These changes can be distressing for both the individual and their loved ones, often requiring patience, understanding, and support from caregivers.[19]

Classification of Alzheimer's Disease

Alzheimer's disease is a complex neurodegenerative condition with various subtypes classified based on different criteria. Here's a breakdown of the classifications you provided:[20]

1. **Classification Based on Severity:**

- ****Mild Alzheimer's:**** Initial cognitive impairment leading to difficulties in daily tasks but still functional.
- ****Moderate Alzheimer's:**** More intense symptoms with significant memory loss and increased dependency on others.
- ****Severe Alzheimer's:**** Advanced stage with widespread brain cell death, resulting in severe impairment and often bedridden status.

2. **Classification Based on Inflammatory Response:**

- **Inflammatory:** Elevated inflammatory biomarkers along with cognitive and behavioral symptoms.
- **Non-Inflammatory:** No elevated inflammatory biomarkers but may have other metabolic abnormalities.
- **Cortical:** Associated with zinc deficiency and abnormalities in brain function, though not necessarily accompanied by inflammation.

3. **Classification Based on Onset or Trigger Type:**

- **Early-Onset Alzheimer's:** Affecting individuals below 65 years, rare and often genetically linked, with distinct features related to Chromosome 14 defects.
- **Late-Onset Alzheimer's:** Affects individuals over 65 years, more common, with genetic triggers not yet fully understood but associated with various risk factors.
- **Familial Alzheimer's Disease (FAD):** Very rare familial form of Alzheimer's with a specific genetic pattern, allowing for prediction of risk within families.

Risk factors –

There are various types of risk factors are mention which are given below -

1. **Age:** Aging is one of the most significant risk factors for cognitive decline [21] and AD [22]. The prevalence of AD increases with age [23], with estimates rising sharply in individuals over 75 years old. [24]
2. **Genes:** Genetic factors play a crucial role in AD risk . While familial cases [25] highlight a clear genetic link, the specific genes involved have been a subject of ongoing research. Mutations in genes such as APP, PSEN1, PSEN2, and APOE have been associated with familial AD, while genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified other potential risk genes.
3. **APP (Amyloid Precursor Protein):** Mutations in the APP gene have been linked to early-onset familial AD. The cleavage of APP [26] leads to the formation of amyloid-beta (A β) peptides [27], which accumulate as plaques in the brain, a hallmark of AD.
4. **PSEN1/2 (Presenilin):** Mutations in the PSEN1 and PSEN2 genes[28], which are involved in APP processing [29], are associated with early-onset familial AD. These mutations can affect γ -secretase cleavage of APP, leading to increased A β deposition [30].
5. **APOE (Apolipoprotein E):** Allelic variation in the APOE gene is a major risk factor for sporadic AD. The ϵ 4 [31] allele is associated with an increased risk and earlier onset of AD, as well as higher A β deposition.

6. **Other Genes**: GWAS have identified additional genes associated with AD risk, involving various functions such as cholesterol metabolism, immune response, and endocytic trafficking. Examples include genes on chromosomes 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 18, and 19 [32], as well as genes like TREM2, ESR, clusterin, and transferrin.[33]

7. **Epigenetic Factors**: Epigenetic changes, which alter gene expression [34] without changes to the DNA sequence, have also been implicated in AD. These changes may interact with genetic factors to influence disease risk.

8. **Metals**: While earlier concern focused on aluminum exposure [35], more recent research suggests broader consideration of metal exposure as a potential risk factor for AD, particularly as cells' ability to maintain key processes may be influenced by metal exposure.

Understanding these risk factors provides valuable insights into the complex etiology of AD and informs efforts in prevention, early detection, and treatment strategies.

Global burden of alzheimers disease

METHODS -

The methodology for estimating the global burden of Alzheimer's disease outlined here is comprehensive and involves several key components:[36]

1. **Multi-State Model**: A probabilistic model is used to simulate the incidence and progression of Alzheimer's disease [37]. This model extends previous single-stage disease models by incorporating early and late stages of the disease.

2. **Transition Probabilities**: These are the probabilities of moving from one disease state to another (e.g., from healthy to early-stage Alzheimer's, from early-stage to late-stage, etc.). These transition probabilities are determined based on age [38], calendar year, and potentially other factors such as the impact of interventions.

3. **Incidence Rates**: Age-specific probabilities of disease onset are estimated based on a systematic review of published Alzheimer's disease incidence rates. These rates are modeled using a regression equation that accounts for the exponential growth of incidence with age.

4. **Disease Progression**: The model accounts for the progressive nature of Alzheimer's disease. Transition probabilities from early to late-stage disease are determined based on estimates of the mean duration of early-stage disease, with sensitivity analyses to account for variability in disease progression.

5. **Mortality Rates**: The model incorporates the effect of Alzheimer's disease on mortality rates. Excess mortality associated with Alzheimer's disease is added to background mortality rates, with calibration based on empirical studies.

6. **Forecasting Prevalence**: Disease prevalence is forecasted by multiplying age-specific prevalence rates by demographic population projections. These projections are based on United Nations worldwide population estimates.

7. **Sensitivity Analyses**: Sensitivity analyses are performed to evaluate the impact of uncertainties in various parameters, such as disease progression rates, mortality rates, and incidence rates.

National strategy to control Alzheimer's disease-

This editorial presents a compelling argument for a national strategic initiative to prevent Alzheimer's disease (AD) by 2020, drawing on the insights from various think-tank meetings and emphasizing the urgent need for action. The proposed vision echoes the ambitious spirit of past national endeavors like the Apollo space program, underlining the feasibility of the goal while outlining the essential components for success.[39]

The editorial stresses the importance of unwavering national commitment, consensus on scientific objectives, efficient organizational structures, and sustained financial investment. It highlights the impending financial burden on the healthcare system due to the rising prevalence of chronic disorders like AD, emphasizing the need for proactive measures.

Furthermore, it traces the history of efforts to address AD, noting the persistent lack of tangible clinical solutions despite significant advancements in research. It argues for a shift in focus towards early detection and prophylactic interventions, recognizing the challenges posed by scientific, financial, and regulatory hurdles.

Key sections address governance, scientific challenges, infrastructure and resources, and financial considerations. They underscore the necessity of centralized control and coordination, the development of new conceptual models and early markers, the expansion of research infrastructure, and the exploration of innovative financing models for prevention trials.

Overall, the editorial presents a comprehensive case for a concerted national effort to prevent AD, framing it as a crucial priority with far-reaching implications for public health and the economy. Prevent Alzheimer's Disease by national strategy

Testing of Alzheimer's disease –

The passage you provided offers a comprehensive overview of the various diagnostic approaches and biomarkers [40] used in the assessment of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Let's break down the key points:

1. **Clinical Diagnosis**: AD diagnosis primarily relies on clinical evaluation, including detailed history, cognitive assessments, and physical exams.
2. **Structural Imaging**: Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) is utilized to detect atrophy in the medial temporal lobes, which is indicative of mild cognitive impairment stage of AD.
3. **Functional Imaging**: Fluorodeoxyglucose PET [41] imaging can reveal hypometabolism in specific brain regions associated with AD.

4. **Amyloid PET Tracers**: Tracers [42] like florbetapir, florbetaben, and flutemetamol can detect beta-amyloid plaques, a hallmark of AD pathology. However, their clinical impact is limited due to reimbursement issues, and they are mainly used in research trials.
5. **Cerebrospinal Fluid (CSF) Biomarkers**: Increased total tau (T-tau) and phosphorylated tau (P-tau), along with decreased amyloid-beta (Ab42), support the diagnosis of AD. These biomarkers can also predict progression from mild cognitive impairment (MCI) to AD.[43]
6. **Comparison of CSF and Amyloid PET Biomarkers**: Studies show a high concordance between CSF and amyloid PET biomarkers, with similar diagnostic accuracy.
7. **Blood Biomarkers**: Despite ongoing research, there are currently no blood biomarkers routinely used for AD diagnosis. Plasma tau and axonal neurofilament light (NFL) protein are being investigated, but with limitations such as overlap with other neurological diseases for NFL.
8. **Plasma Ab42**: Unlike CSF Ab42, plasma Ab42 has not shown predictive value for AD development, possibly due to differences in release mechanisms.[44]

Diagnosis of alzheimers disease -

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is indeed a complex condition, requiring both clinical and neuropathological criteria for a definitive diagnosis. Clinical assessment focuses on observing symptoms associated with cognitive decline, while neuropathological changes, such as the accumulation of neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) and amyloid-beta (A β) plaques [45], can only be confirmed post-mortem through autopsy.

Despite advancements in research, accurately distinguishing AD from other forms of dementia remains challenging. Current diagnostic tools rely heavily on cognitive assessments like the Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MOCA) and Mini-Mental Status Examination (MMSE) [46]. However, the definitive confirmation of AD can only be made post-mortem by detecting NFTs and A β plaques in brain tissue.

Researchers are exploring alternative diagnostic approaches, such as utilizing epigenetic alterations as potential biomarkers for AD. Epigenetic modifications, including DNA methylation, hydroxymethylation,[47] noncoding RNA translation, and histone post-translational modifications, have been implicated in AD pathogenesis. Disruptions in DNA methylation and hydroxymethylation processes have been associated with AD and other neuropathologies.

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) methylation and hydroxymethylation have also been investigated in the context of AD. Studies have reported alterations in mtDNA methylation [48] levels in AD brains, particularly in the D-loop region. Additionally, changes in mtDNA content and methylation have been observed in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), suggesting their potential as biomarkers for AD.

Histone modifications, including acetylation and methylation, play crucial roles in neuronal function and AD pathology. Abnormalities in histone acetylation and methylation have been

detected in post-mortem AD brains [49], implicating their involvement in disease progression.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) have emerged as key regulators of gene expression in AD. Specific miRNAs have been linked to various aspects of AD pathology, including amyloid precursor protein (APP) metabolism, [50] tau phosphorylation, and neuroinflammation. Dysregulation of miRNA expression levels has been observed in AD brains and peripheral tissues, highlighting their potential as diagnostic and therapeutic targets.

In short, understanding the epigenetic and molecular mechanisms underlying AD pathogenesis holds promise for the development of novel diagnostic approaches and therapeutic interventions. Further research into epigenetic modifications, mitochondrial dysfunction, histone alterations, and miRNA dysregulation is essential for advancing our understanding of AD and developing effective treatments.

Treatment of alzheimers disease –

Current research into Alzheimer's disease (AD) is multifaceted and dynamic, encompassing various approaches aimed at both symptomatic relief and disease modification. Let's delve into the current landscape of disease-modifying treatments (DMTs) for AD: [51]

1. **Immunotherapy Approaches:**

- Gantenerumab, crenezumab, and aducanumab are currently undergoing clinical trials as immunotherapy agents targeting the clearance of amyloid-beta (Ab) aggregates, a hallmark pathology of AD.

2. **Novel Targets:**

- Researchers are exploring novel treatment targets including:
 - Mitochondrial dysfunction
 - Excitotoxicity and misfolding protein aggregations
 - Autophagy modulation
 - Neuroinflammation modulation
 - Gut microbiota modulation

3. **Behavioral Approaches:**

- Behavioral interventions are crucial for enhancing the quality of life for individuals with AD and their caregivers. These include:
 - Consistency and simplification of environment
 - Establishing routines
 - Communication strategies
 - Legal and medical planning
 - Cognitive and physical therapies such as cognitive behavioral therapy, exercise therapy, light therapy, and music therapy.

4. **Caregiver Support:**

- Providing support and education for caregivers is essential for managing AD effectively. This includes:
 - Offering respite care for caregivers
 - Psychoeducation on dementia progression and management
 - Facilitating support networks for caregivers.

5. **Pharmacological Interventions:**

- FDA-approved medications for AD primarily include cholinesterase inhibitors (AChEIs) and memantine.
- AChEIs (donepezil, galantamine, rivastigmine) increase acetylcholine levels in the brain, temporarily improving cognitive function.
- Memantine modulates glutamatergic transmission and is used in moderate to severe AD, alone or in combination with AChEIs.
- Pharmacotherapy for behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia (BPSD) typically involves antipsychotics and antidepressants, tailored to individual patient needs and tolerability.

6. **Optimization of Treatment Regimens:**

- Careful management of medications to avoid polypharmacy and minimize potentially harmful drugs.
- Treatment of underlying medical conditions such as vascular risk factors, thyroid disorders, and nutritional deficiencies.

7. **Current Research Challenges and Future Directions:**

- Despite numerous clinical trials, no new drug has been approved for AD since 2003, highlighting the complexity of the disease.
- Challenges include late initiation of therapies, inappropriate dosing, and inadequate understanding of AD pathophysiology.
- Emerging approaches involve the use of biomarkers (e.g., amyloid and tau PET imaging) for precise diagnosis and patient stratification in clinical trials.
- Future research directions include precision medicine approaches based on biomarker profiles, genetic analysis, and neuroimaging, aiming for personalized therapeutic strategies.

In summary, the current landscape of AD treatment research is characterized by diverse approaches targeting various aspects of the disease, with a growing emphasis on precision medicine and personalized interventions.

Current Landscape in Treatment Research for AD

The landscape of treatment research for Alzheimer's disease (AD) is marked by numerous challenges and failures, but also by ongoing efforts to understand the disease better and develop effective therapies. Despite the absence of new FDA-approved drugs since 2003 and the high rate of failed trials [52], research continues with a focus on both disease-modifying treatments (DMTs) and symptomatic relief.

One major hurdle in AD research has been the inadequacy of clinical trial endpoints and the variability in diagnostic markers, leading to inaccurate diagnoses and trial outcomes. To address this, there's a growing interest in using clinical trial simulators, which employ mathematical, computational, and statistical tools to predict the likelihood of a trial's success before it begins. These simulators can aid in trial design and increase the chances of identifying successful treatments while saving time and resources.

Current research is also shifting towards a precision medicine approach, incorporating biomarker profiles, genetic analysis, neuropsychological evaluations, and neuroimaging to better classify patients and design more effective trials. The National Institute on Aging and

the Alzheimer's Association (NIA-AA) have proposed a framework that includes the application of amyloid, tau, and neurodegeneration biomarkers to improve clinical trial design.

In terms of specific treatment approaches, much attention has been given to targeting amyloid-related mechanisms, such as reducing A β 42 production, reducing A β -plaque burden, and promoting A β clearance through immunotherapy. However, many trials targeting these mechanisms have faced setbacks, including safety concerns and lack of efficacy.

Similarly, tau-related mechanisms are being explored as potential treatment targets, including prevention of ptau formation, inhibition of tau aggregation, microtubule stabilization, and targeting posttranslational modifications of tau. While some promising candidates have emerged, such as anti-tau monoclonal antibodies, challenges remain in translating preclinical success into clinical efficacy.

Other mechanisms of neuroprotection are also being investigated, including agents aimed at reducing neuronal hyperactivity induced by A β . Repurposing existing drugs for AD treatment, such as low-dose extended-release levetiracetam, is also being explored.

Conclusion –

Alzheimer is world wide disorder which is continuously affecting the human health. It has been spread all over the world. Now it has become necessary to control for welfare of human mankind. Memory loss is one of the major problem that is related to the Alzheimer. A person suffering from the Alzheimer faces too many difficulties to put the memory for long period of the time, which arises further complications related to memory loss in Alzheimer. Herbal medicines are used to treat and prevent Alzheimer. Herbal medicines are used in treatment of Alzheimer because they have less side effects rather than allopathy drug. In this review, discussion about the Alzheimer disease, pathogenesis, diagnosis, global burden and treatment of Alzheimer disease and many more other things related to Alzheimer disease are being done.

Reference -

1. Colin L. Masters¹, R. B. (2015, 15 october). *Alzheimer disease*. Retrieved from Primer:file:///C:/Users/rohit/AppData/Local/Microsoft/Windows/INetCache/IE/OV6Z2A0Q/Alzheimers_disease
2. Scheltens P, Blennow K, Breteler MM, et al. Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet* 2016; 388: 505–17.
3. Philip Scheltens, B. D. (2022, 4 april). *alzheimer disease*. Retrieved from preview pmc: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8354300/>

4. *Alzheimer's disease is thought to be caused by the abnormal build-up of proteins in and around brain cells.* (n.d.). Retrieved from NHS: <https://www.nhs.uk/conditions/alzheimers-disease/causes/>
6. Mastroeni, D.; Grover, A.; Delvaux, E.; Whiteside, C.; Coleman, P.D.; Rogers, J. Epigenetic mechanisms in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol. Aging* 2011, 32, 1161–1180.
8. Scheltens, P.; De Strooper, B.; Kivipelto, M.; Holstege, H.; Chételat, G.; Teunissen, C.E.; Cummings, J.; van der Flier, W.M. Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet* 2021, 397, 1577–1590.
9. Cummings, J.; Lee, G.; Nahed, P.; Kambar, M.E.Z.N.; Zhong, K.; Fonseca, J.; Taghva, K. Alzheimer's disease drug development pipeline: 2022. *Alzheimer Dement. Transl. Res. Clin. Interv.* 2022, 8, e12295
10. Nikolac Perkovic, M.; Videtic Paska, A.; Konjevod, M.; Kouter, K.; Svob Strac, D.; Nedic Erjavec, G.; Pivac, N. Epigenetics of Alzheimer's Disease. *Biomolecules* 2021, 11, 195.
11. Millan, M.J. The epigenetic dimension of Alzheimer's disease: Causal, consequence, or curiosity? *Dialogues Clin. Neurosci.* 2022, 16, 373–393
12. Adwan, L.; Zawia, N.H. Epigenetics: A novel therapeutic approach for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Pharmacol. Ther.* 2013, 139, 41–50.
13. Tecalco-Cruz, A.C.; Ramírez-Jarquín, J.O.; Alvarez-Sánchez, M.E.; Zepeda-Cervantes, J. Epigenetic basis of Alzheimer disease. *World J. Biol. Chem.* 2020, 11, 62
14. Stoccoro, A.; Coppedè, F. Role of epigenetics in Alzheimer's disease pathogenesis. *Neurodegener. Dis. Manag.* 2018, 8, 181–193.
15. Alagiakrishnan, K.; Gill, S.S.; Fagarasanu, A. Genetics and epigenetics of Alzheimer's disease. *Postgrad. Med. J.* 2012, 88, 522–529.
16. Ozaki, Y.; Yoshino, Y.; Yamazaki, K.; Sao, T.; Mori, Y.; Ochi, S.; Yoshida, T.; Mori, T.; Iga, J.I.; Ueno, S.I. DNA methylation changes at TREM2 intron 1 and TREM2 mRNA expression in patients with Alzheimer's disease. *J. Psychiatr. Res.* 2017, 92, 74–80.
17. Sharma, V.K.; Mehta, V.; Singh, T.G. Alzheimer's Disorder: Epigenetic Connection and Associated Risk Factors. *Curr. Neuropharmacol.* 2020, 18, 740–753.
18. Adlard, P.A.; Bush, A.I. Metals and Alzheimer's Disease: How Far Have We Come in the Clinic? *J. Alzheimers Dis.* 2018, 62, 1369–1379.
19. <https://medschool.ucla.edu/news-article/alzheimers-vs-dementia-what-is-the-difference#:~:text=Dementia%20is%20a%20general%20term,for%20the%20majority%20of%20cases>
20. *Sign and symptoms of Alzheimer.* (n.d.). Retrieved from Alzheimer association: https://www.alz.org/alzheimers-dementia/10_signs

21. Patel, H. (n.d.). *Types of Alzheimer disease*. Retrieved from News medical: <https://www.news-medical.net/health/Types-of-Alzheimers-Disease.aspx>
22. Delacourte A, Sergeant N, Champain D, Wattez A, Maurage CA, Lebert F, Pasquier F, David JP. Nonoverlapping but synergetic tau and amyloid precursor protein pathologies in sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology* 2002; 59: 398-407.
23. Doruk H, Naharci MI, Bozoglu E, Isik AT, Kilic S. The relationship between body mass index and incidental mild cognitive impairment, Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia in elderly. *J Nut Health Aging* 2010; 14: 834-838.
24. Ferri CP, Prince M, Brayne C, Brodaty H, Fratiglioni L, Ganguly M, Hall K, Hasegawa K, Hendrie H, Huang Y, Jorm A, Mathers C, Menezes PR, Rimmer E, Scazufca M; Alzheimer's Disease International. Global prevalence of dementia: a Delphi consensus study. *Lancet* 2005; 366: 2112-2117.
25. Francis YI, Stephanou A, Latchman DS. CREB-binding protein activation by presenilin 1 but not by its M146L mutant. *Neuroreport* 2006; 17: 917-921.
26. Barthet G, Dunys J, Shao ZP, Xuan Z, Ren YM, Xu JD, Arbez N, Mauger G, Bruban J, Georgakopoulos A, Shioi J, Robakis NK. Presenilin mediates neuroprotective functions of ephrin-B and brain-derived neurotrophic factor and regulates ligand-induced internalization and metabolism of EphB2 and TrkB receptors. *Neurobiol Aging* 2013; 34: 499-510.
27. Karaca I, Wagner H, Ramirez A. Search for risk genes in Alzheimer's disease. *Nervenarzt* 2017; 88: 744-750.
28. Levy-Lahad E, Wasco W, Poorkaj P, Romano DM, Oshima J, Pettingell WH, Yu C, Paul D, Jondro PD, Schmidt SD, Wang K, Crowley AC, Fu Y, Guenette SY, Galas D, Nemens E, Wijsman EM, Bird TD, Schellenberg GD, Tanzi RE. Candidate gene for chromosome 1 familial Alzheimer's disease locus. *Science* 1995; 269: 973-977.
29. Liu GY, Yao LF, Liu JF, Jiang YS, Ma GD, Chen ZG, Zhao B, Li KS. Cardiovascular disease contributes to Alzheimer's disease: evidence from large-scale genome-wide association studies. *Neurobiol Aging* 2014; 35: 786-792.
30. Rossor M, Mountjoy CQ. Post-mortem neurochemical changes in Alzheimer's disease compared with normal ageing. *Can J Neurol Sci* 1986; 13: 499-502.
31. Sherrington R, Rogaev EI, Liang Y, Rogaeva EA, Levesque G, Ikeda M, Chi H, Lin C, Li G, Holman K, Tsuda T, Mar L, Foncin JF, Bruni AC, Moulese MP, Sorbi S, Rainero I, Pinessi L, Nee L, Chumakov I, Pollen D, Brookes A, Sauseau P, Polinski RJ, Wasco RJ, Dasilva HAR, Haines JL, Pericak-Vance MA, Tanzi RE, Roses AD, Fraser PE, Rommens JM and St George-Hyslop PH. Cloning of a gene bearing missense mutations in early onset familial Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* 1993; 375: 754-760.
32. Wang Y, Xu SL, Liu Z, Lai C, Xie ZH, Zhao CP, Wei Y, Bi JZ. Meta-analysis on the association between the Tf gene rs1049296 and Alzheimer's disease. *Can J Neurol Sci* 2013; 40: 691-697.

33. Kwok JBJ. Role of epigenetics in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease. *Epigenomics* 2010; 2: 671-682.
34. Lahiry DK, Maloney B. The 'LEARN' (Latent early-life associated regulation) model integrates environmental risk factors and the developmental basis of Alzheimer's disease and proposes remedial steps. *Exp Gerontol* 2010; 45: 291-296
35. Hsu HW, Bondy SC, Kitazawa M. Environmental and dietary exposure to copper and its cellular mechanisms linking to Alzheimer's disease. *Toxicol Sci* 2018; 163: 338-345.
36. Ron Brookmeyer, E. J. (2019, 1 19). *forecasting the global burden of alzheimer diseasee*. Retrieved from john hopkins bloomberg school of public health.
37. Roberson E, Mucke L. 100 Years and Counting: Prospects for Defeating Alzheimer's Disease. *Science* 2006: 314:781-784. 2. Ferri CP, Brayne C, Brodaty H, et al. Global Prevalence of Dementia: A Delphi Consensus Study. *Lancet* 2005: 366:2112-17
38. Armstrong RA. What causes Alzheimer's disease? *Folia Neuropathol* 2013; 51: 169-188
39. Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects*, <http://esa.un.org/unpp>
40. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1552526009000259>
41. Kato T, Inui Y, Nakamura A, Ito K. Brain fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG) PET in dementia. *Ageing Research Reviews*. 2016 Sep 1;30:73-84.
42. Clark CM, Pontecorvo MJ, Beach TG, Bedell BJ, Coleman RE, Doraiswamy PM, et al. Cerebral PET with florbetapir compared with neuropathology at autopsy for detection of neuritic amyloid- β plaques: a prospective cohort study. *The Lancet Neurology*. 2012 Aug 1;11(8):669-78.
43. Hampel H, Bürger K, Teipel SJ, Bokde AL, Zetterberg H, Blennow K. Core candidate neurochemical and imaging biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*. 2008 Jan 1;4(1):38-48.
44. Blennow K, Mattsson N, Schöll M, Hansson O, Zetterberg H. Amyloid biomarkers in Alzheimer's disease. *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*. 2015 May 1;36(5):297-
45. Hansson O, Zetterberg H, Vanmechelen E, Vanderstichele H, Andreasson U, Londos E, et al. Evaluation of plasma A β 40 and A β 42 as predictors of conversion to Alzheimer's disease in patients with mild cognitive impairment. *Neurobiology of Aging*. 2010 Mar 1;31(3):357-67.
46. Mastroeni, D.; Grover, A.; Delvaux, E.; Whiteside, C.; Coleman, P.D.; Rogers, J. Epigenetic mechanisms in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol. Aging* 2011, 32, 1161–1180.

47. Alagiakrishnan, K.; Gill, S.S.; Fagarasanu, A. Genetics and epigenetics of Alzheimer's disease. *Postgrad. Med. J.* 2012, 88, 522–529.
48. Hyman, B.T.; Phelps, C.H.; Beach, T.G.; Bigio, E.H.; Cairns, N.J.; Carrillo, M.C.; Dickson, D.W.; Duyckaerts, C.; Frosch, M.P.; Masliah, E.; et al. National Institute on Aging-Alzheimer's Association guidelines for the neuropathologic assessment of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2012, 8, 1–13
49. Morais, F.M.; Ribeiro, A.M.; Moreira, F.A.; Silva, P.V.G. Systematic review and meta-analysis on the role of mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase in Alzheimer's disease. *Acta Neuropsychiatr.* 2021, 33, 55–64
50. Wang, J.; Yu, J.-T.; Tan, M.-S.; Jiang, T.; Tan, L. Epigenetic mechanisms in Alzheimer's disease: Implications for pathogenesis and therapy. *Ageing Res. Rev.* 2013, 12, 1024–1041.
51. Remenyi, J.; Hunter, C.J.; Cole, C.; Ando, H.; Impey, S.; Monk, C.E.; Martin, K.J.; Barton, G.J.; Hutvagner, G.; Arthur, J.S. Regulation of the miR-212/132 locus by MSK1 and CREB in response to neurotrophins. *Biochem. J.* 2010, 428, 281–291.
52. Lane RM, Kordasiewicz HB, Smith AE, et al. Rationale for and development of IONIS-MAPTRx, the first tau-lowering antisense oligonucleotide, in patients with mild AD (POSTER #M158). 142nd Annual Meeting of The American Neurological Association; October 15-17, San Diego, CA